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ABSTRACT

This publication contains four chapters that examine the reform of administrator preparation programs. In "The Reform Paradigm: Exploring the Fuzzy Logic of Educational Administration," William Ammentorp and Thomas Morgan develop a model based on linguistic algorithms to understand qualitative policy formation and decision making. In "Student Recruitment and Selection Practices in Educational Administration Programs," M. Scott Norton presents findings of a study that examined the student-recruitment and selection practices in educational administration programs at 40 University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions. Findings indicate that the institutions employed various strategies and multiple sources of evidence to recruit and select women and minorities and other talented populations to their preparation programs. "Challenging the Conventional Assumptions about the Preparation Programs for Aspiring Superintendents," by Daniel C. Douglas, reviews research conducted by the UCEA Center for the Study of Superintendents and School Boards for implications for the restructuring of superintendent-preparation programs. The chapter offers proposals concerning the need to consider a triad of elements in preparation programs and the development of a clinical professor model. Finally, in "Evaluation of Rigor and Value as a Base for Restructuring the Administrative Internship," Virginia L. Wylie and Ernestine H. Clark report the results of efforts by Valdosta State College's Department of Educational Administration and Supervision (EAS) to revise and upgrade the traditional administrative internship. References accompany each chapter. (LMI)

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REFORMING ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION PROGRAMS

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MONOGRAPH SERIES
UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

REFORMING ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION PROGRAMS

UCEA MONOGRAPH SERIES

Frederick C. Wendel
Series Editor

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IN MEMORIAM

This volume year of the *UCEA Monograph Series* is dedicated to the memory of John Prasch. John was a longtime friend of UCEA, a UCEA partnership superintendent, professor at the Universiy of Nebraska-Lincoln, and a reviewer for these publications.

FOREWORD

Members of the Editorial Board have selected papers for inclusion in this UCEA Monograph Series on the general theme of "Reforming Administrator Preparation Programs." They were originally presented at the 1991 Convention of the University Council for Educational Administration in Baltimore. Larry L. Dlugosh, Ronald G. Joekel, Barbara Y. LaCost, and Ruth E. Randall, all faculty members of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, reviewed the manuscripts and selected the papers for this issue. Their time, effort, analysis of the manuscripts, and thoughtful contributions are deeply appreciated.

Frederick C. Wendel, Editor
Lincoln, Nebraska
November, 1992

CHAPTER 1

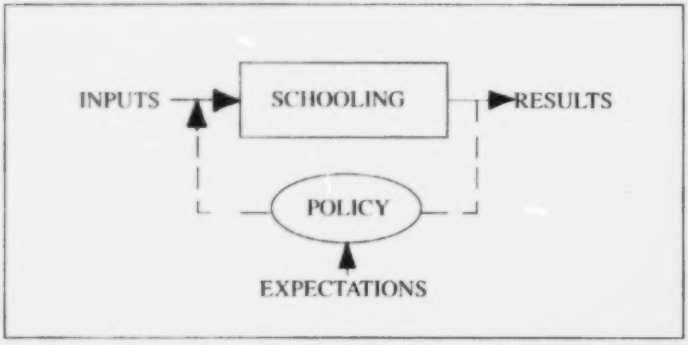
The Reform Paradigm: Exploring the Fuzzy Logic of Educational Administration

William Ammentorp
University of Minnesota
Thomas Morgan
Augsburg College

On The Qualitative Nature Of Educational Reform

A "reform paradigm," a way of thinking about school organizations is shared by those interested in the outputs of schooling and how they are attained. This paradigm is one which has three ingredients: input, process, and result. Reformers visualize this paradigm as a simple model like that shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
The Traditional Reform Paradigm



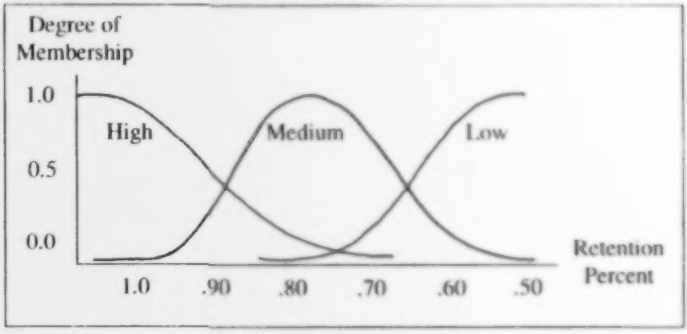
In applying this model to education, reformers have a set of **Expectations** in mind and initiate reforms when there is a discrepancy between

Expectations and Results. Reform efforts are then directed at changes in **Inputs** and/or **Process**. This paradigm is one widely shared by reformers and policy makers across the human services. It has, for instance, resulted in major social legislation in health care in recent years (Ammentorp, Gossett, & Poe, 1990).

Although the reform paradigm seems quite logical, it is inevitably fuzzy in application. An example serves to illustrate this point. Suppose that reformers have set **Expectations** for schools in the form of retention rates. Further, assume that the reformers are enlightened consumers of educational research and that they recognize that variability of student background and ability prevent educators from ensuring that every student will be retained to graduation. Under these conditions, reformers would have some difficulty in determining which schools are effective retainers of students (Toles, Schultz, & Rice, 1986).

The problem of classifying effective schools under these assumptions is a fuzzy one. For any given retention rate, there is a *degree of membership* in the *fuzzy* set of effective schools that can be pictured by a *membership function* like that shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2
The Effective School Concept as a Fuzzy Variable



The figure shows a number ranging from 1 (complete membership in the set of effective schools) to 0 (complete absence of membership in the set of effective schools). For any value of the **Retention** variable, there is a corresponding number which is indicative of the degree to which schools with that retention rate are members in the set of effective schools. Thus, the set of effective schools is a *fuzzy* set since there is no finite rule whereby a school is either included in or excluded from the set (Zadeh, 1987).

The reason for the *fuzziness* of concepts like "effective schools" is that they are multidimensional, and observers assign their own set of weights to each dimension in coming to a conclusion about "effectiveness." Thus, one observer might find a school with a high drop out rate to be "effective" given the population of students it serves. Another observer might rate the same school as "ineffective" because it spends a good deal of money on the same group of students. Fuzzy set *theory* skirts the problem of making binary decisions about school effectiveness. Instead, analysts are able to turn to membership functions like that shown above to get a sense of the *extent* to which a given school is effective-based on an observed retention rate.

The Linguistic Foundation Of Qualitative Problems

Whether a policy problem relates to effective schools or to the efficacy of specific reforms, many factors bear on any decision. These factors are generally not measurable in the traditional sense. That is, there is no set of steps whereby one-to-one correspondence can be established between instances of a given factor and the set of rational numbers. As a result, constructs like "effectiveness" or "accountability" cannot be accommodated in a traditional decision algorithm. At best, they can only be included through such proxy variables as "drop out rate" or scores on standardized tests which may or may not be sufficiently rich in detail to provide an adequate representation of the construct.

Due to the underlying mathematical requirements of most decision algorithms, they can rarely be applied to available measures. There are two types of decision variables: traditional—which assume numerical values, and linguistic—which are words or phrases that approximate natural language. "The purpose of linguistic variables is to provide a linkage to the numerical/logical demands of the computer and the imprecise or uncertain facts and rules comprising most of our actual knowledge about the world and how to function in it" (Whalen, Schott, Gree, & Ganoe, 1987, p. 100).

Most decision making models and algorithms have been constrained to the use of traditional (numerical) variables. Linguistic variables, due to their inherent non-numerical nature, are usually either excluded or ignored. Standard computerized approaches to policy problems require deterministic rules which are dependent upon arbitrary cutoff points which often fail to reflect the purpose of an underlying decision rule. For example, the Wisconsin state policy for at risk learners provides additional funds to schools whose drop out rates are higher than would be expected, given the

case-mix of students enrolled. In the regression model which drives this policy, only a limited number of risk-producing factors are considered. The result is that a school enrolling students placed at risk due to factors not represented in the model would be ineligible for additional funding. This "spurious precision" is a significant limitation found in many of the administrative rules associated with public policy.

Qualitative Models For School Reform

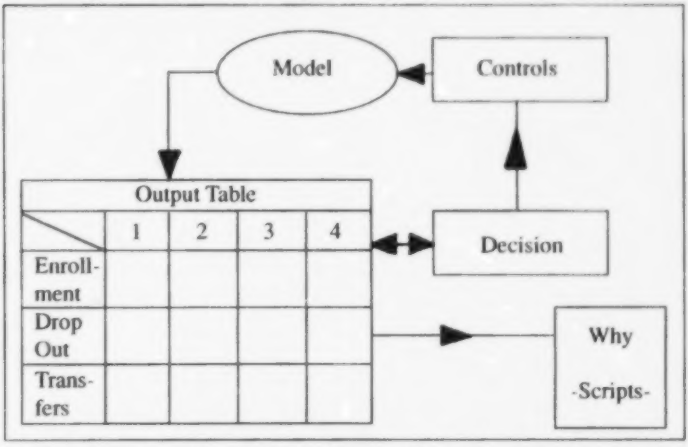
Given the fuzzy nature of most educational outcome (result) variables, how can appropriate policies be identified? The answer lies in the models of schooling shared by educators and policy makers. To the extent that they are in general agreement as to the way schools "work," educators and policy makers can look to the qualitative behavior of the "ruling model" for guidance in the policy process. The approach advocated by deKleer and Brown (1984) in their studies of physical systems will be used.

The issues associated with educational reform have traditionally been cast in the language of social indicators by using the methodology of educational research to identify policy problems and potential solutions. A result is a heavy dependency on theories of measurement and probability in the setting of problems and a reliance on binary logic for arriving at policy interventions. From this point of view, educational reform follows the metaphor of social experiment where the school is a laboratory for testing controlled change (Miller, 1985).

In an examination of reform activities, this metaphor breaks down. Reformers are more concerned with the "meaning" of educational statistics than with specific values of measured variables. They are more likely to engage in linguistic discussion of fuzzy problems than precise analysis of quantified alternatives. And, they are more concerned with what is possible than with the probability of policy outcomes. Reformers are, in effect, operating in a qualitative problem solving environment where the appropriate metaphor is that of the courtroom, not the laboratory.

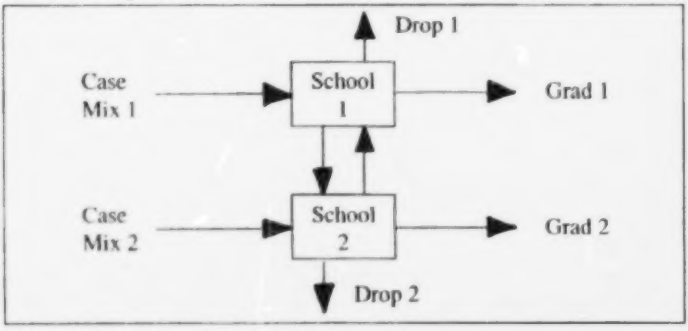
If the courtroom is the working metaphor for reform, casting reform issues in qualitative terms is appropriate. If the "meaning" of concepts central to the reform debate can be determined, the utility of linguistic problem solving as a means to picture the reform process can be assessed (Negoita, 1983). Should such a translation from the quantitative to the qualitative prove to be possible, an examination can be made of the reasoning of policy makers to arrive at the underlying linguistic algorithms which guide reform (Neitzel and Hoffman, 1980).

Figure 3
Flow Diagram of Research Design



The components of a computer-based policy environment are summarized on the flow chart shown in Figure 3. At the center of this environment is a model of schooling written from the perspective of Systems Dynamics (Roberts, Anderson, Garret, Deal, & Shaffer, 1988). This model is one which expands the basic reform paradigm of Figure 1 to show how different groups of students flow through the educational system. Figure 4 pictures a simplified version of this model. The model effectively "sorts" students into various programs, each of which has its characteristic ability to serve and retain students.

Figure 4
Reform Policy Model

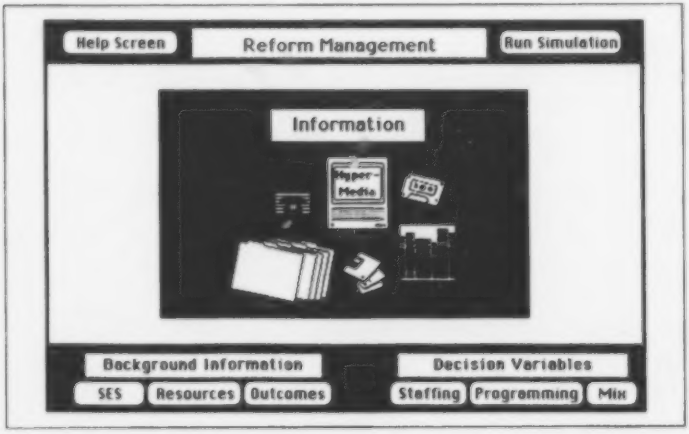


The model is sensitive to the reality that any school faces a unique "case mix" of learners who have varying capacities to benefit from the programs it offers (Ammentorp, Mazzoni, & Snyder, 1991). This quantitative model is driven by probability distributions expressive of observed patterns of student flow.

The model is written in *Think* [1], a simulation language designed from the Systems Dynamics perspective. It operates "behind" a HyperCard interface which provides a link between the qualitative views of the policy maker and the quantitative variables of the model. The environment is implemented on a Macintosh computer running System 7 which supports the multitasking required by the policy exercise.

Policy makers use this environment to address a simplified version of the reform process. They are introduced to the problem via the following display.

Figure 5
HyperMedia Model Index Screen



In Figure 5, a series of options are shown which policy makers can select to acquire a perspective on a problem. By "clicking" on one of the "boxes" on the lower margin, policy makers can access screens on which features of the policy issue are described. The issue treated in the current version of the environment is that of student choice among program alternatives. Accordingly, information is available concerning the adaptive behavior levels of students, time on task required for student advancement, the relative

success rate of programs, and the effect of staffing ratios on student flow. In addition, information is presented as the variables included in the simulation model. These are categorized as Stock, Flow, or Control variables as listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Model Variables

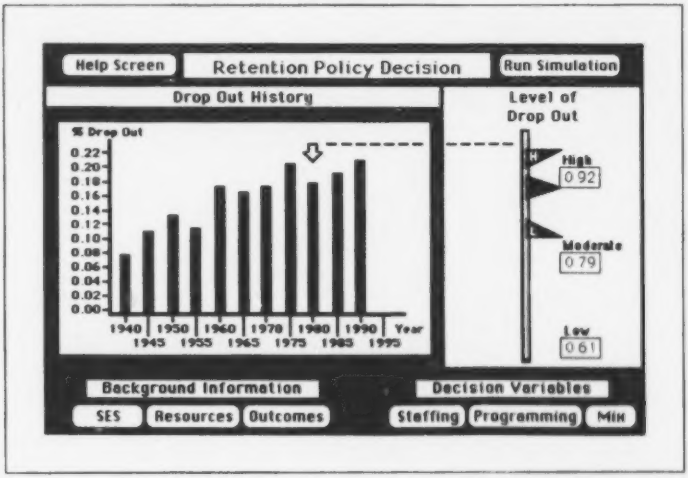
STOCKS	FLOWS	PARAMETERS	CONTROLS
Students in Programs	Enrollment	Case Mix	Busing
	Transitions	Adaptive Behavior	Choice
	Drop Out	Time on Task	
Teachers	Transfers	Salary Schedules	Ratios
	Quits	Employment Options	Budget
	Hires		

Each of the "Stock" variables in this table is influenced by its associated "Flows." Thus the number of "Students in Programs" is determined by "Enrollment," "Transitions" and "Drop Out." In turn, these variables are controlled by policy decisions concerning "Busing" and "Choice." These "Controls" operate within constraints set by model "Parameters" which represent the social and economic environment of the school. The resulting decision problem is to "Control" the "Flows" in the model so that a given "Stock" variable is held at a desired level. For example, reform concern for "Drop Out" can only be addressed by altering the "Flows " of "Teachers" and "Students in Programs" using the "Control" variables; it cannot be changed by the direct action of policy makers.

In order to frame this problem in qualitative terms, each model variable must be scaled according to the perceptions of the policy maker who is "playing" the simulation. A mapping of the membership functions for the linguistic variables associated with a given concept, such as drop out percent, is required. Each mapping would take the form of a series of graphs like that shown in Figure 6 on which the membership functions are plotted. In the model, two approaches are taken to the derivation and use of such functions. First, data points for each model variable are presented to policy

makers with instructions to sort each point into one of the three linguistic groups: "high," "medium," or "low." Data from these sorts are aggregated to plot "group" membership functions which represent the consensus (if any) of opinion of policy makers by using a series of displays like that shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6
Membership Function



If such grouped data approximate the curves shown in Figure 2, "cross-over points" which bound the linguistic sets for individual policy makers can be assumed. This is the assumption on which the second derivation is based. Policy makers (players) are asked to indicate the "cross-over points" which define the "high," "medium," and "low" values of each variable.

Educational reformers should note that it is a *quantitative* model. For any given school, analysts can compute the numbers of students in any of the accumulation "boxes" in the model and assess the magnitude of flows occurring over any time period. However, the absolute values of these *quantitative* variables do not motivate reformers. They are energized by their beliefs as to the *qualitative* working of the educational system. What this means is that " . . . the attempt is to analyze a model of a real-world situation, so that an over-precise description would not be sensible, since the model itself is already an abstraction" (Wood & Coxhead, 1989, p. 78).

By using each player's qualitative membership function, an interfacing between the quantitative workings of the model and the qualitative perceptions of the policy maker can be created. The interface used in the current environment is shown in Figure 7.

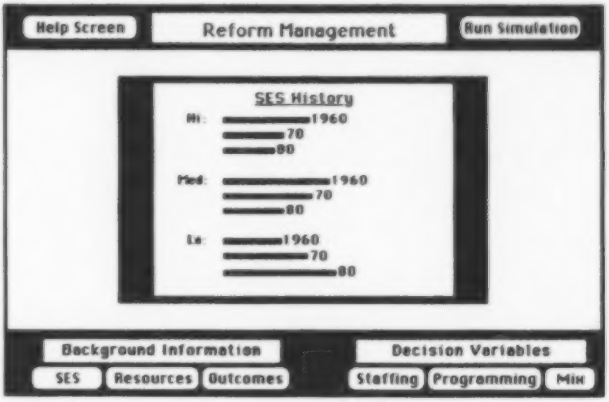
Figure 7
Scenario Table

Outcome	Iteration				...	
	Start	1	2	3		n
Enrollment	Med	Med↓	Low	Low↑		Med
Transitions	Low	Low↑	Med	Med		Med
Drop Out	Low↑	Med	Med↓	Low		High↓
Transfers	Low	Low	Low↑	Med		Med
Quits	Med↑	High	High↓	Med↓		Low↑

This "Scenario Table" shows the current and historical values of each model variable in terms of the player's membership functions. In addition, it pictures the direction of change of each variable by using the "up" or "down" arrows. At each iteration of the model, play is suspended and the policy maker is asked to make any desired changes in "Control" variables. Such changes may only be made in qualitative terms. That is, "Choice" can be increased from "medium" to "high" on the player's own scale. These "Controls"" are translated to qualitative values using previously established membership functions and play proceeds.

During the course of play, policy makers can access additional information about the reform problem. By "clicking" on the Background Information box at the bottom of any screen, they can examine data like those shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8
Information Screen



In this Figure, the SES history of students enrolled in the school district as a percent of total population in each of three SES groups is shown.

One Scenario constitutes a complete "play" of the game. Information concerning the values of all model variables for each iteration of the game is stored in a data base. These data provide for identification of algorithms in use by policy makers. For example, we might find indications of an algorithm such as:

> If Case Mix is "wide" and Dropout is "high," increase teacher Ratio to the next highest level. If teacher Ratio is already at "high" then reduce Choice to the next "lower" level.

Summary

Policy making is inherently qualitative in nature. Further, there are shared-fuzzy-perceptions of issues which represent the ways policy makers frame discussion and possible solutions. Finally, there is a qualitative methodology whereby these perceptions and discussions can be described and analyzed.

The policy analysis environment has been constructed and tested. There are, as yet, insufficient data to derive the linguistic algorithms considered to be at the center of policy debates. Despite the relative immaturity of the

project, the potential of the model for making sense of problems which have long defied analysis is exciting. As more problems are framed in the methodology of qualitative modelling, an emerging base for a theory of administrative behavior which is broadly applicable to the real world of educational policy and practice should emerge.

Footnotes

[1]The software used for modeling is Stella, available from High Performance Systems in Hanover, MS.

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CHAPTER 2

Student Recruitment and Selection Practices in Educational Administration Programs

M. Scott Norton
Arizona State University

Introduction

Preparation programs for potential administrators in education are targets of much criticism by various publics. The topic of student recruitment has received the special attention of major study groups as well as the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, in *Leaders for America's Schools*, stated that, "The profession should recruit intellectually superior and capable individuals to administrator preparation programs" (1987, p. 13). The Commission added:

> There has been no systematic attempt to recruit the ablest from this pool (of potential school administrators). The process has been largely that of self-selection. Professional organizations should identify outstanding candidates for school administration and encourage them, through scholarship programs, to undertake preparation. The organizations also could have as a specific goal the identification of women and minorities who should be enlisted into administrator preparation. (p. 13)

The National Policy Board (1989) advocated the improvement of preparation programs "by modifying the quality, diversity, and numbers of people involved in those programs" and recommended that "vigorous recruitment strategies be mounted to attract (1) the brightest and most capable candidates, of diverse race, ethnicity, and sex, and (2) a minority enrollment at least comparable to the region's minority public school enrollment" (p. 2).

The National Policy Board also recommended that, "entrance standards to administrator preparation programs be dramatically raised to ensure that all candidates possess strong analytic ability, high administrative potential, and demonstrated success in teaching..." (p. 2).

Following the actions by the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration and the recommendations of the National Policy Board, UCEA, through Plenary action, adopted this criterion for its member institutions in October, 1991.

> The program is characterized by systematic, written recruitment and selection plans that rely on multiple sources of evidence and show deliberate efforts to attract high quality applicants, including applicants from racial and ethnic minority groups and women. (p. 9)

Indicators for meeting this membership requirement are (a) narrative descriptions of plans, timelines, and documents used in annual recruitment efforts and (b) list of program applicants for the most recent academic year, their scores and other indicators used for screening, racial designation, gender, and whether they were admitted.

In 1991, the UCEA Program Center for Preparation Programs initiated a national study of recruitment and selection practices in UCEA member institutions. The central focus of the study was to determine the practices in operation relative to student recruitment and selection and to find what strategies were being implemented to attract minorities and women and other talented populations to preparation programs in educational administration. Of the 50 UCEA member institutions, 40 institutions (80%) participated.

Section I of the study focused on practices concerning student recruitment. Each participating university reported on (a) recruitment strategies being used to develop formal linkages with school districts, (b) student recruitment through collaboration with professional associations and/or other special groups, (c) student recruitment through involvement with teacher/administrator programs on university and college campuses, (d) student recruitment through formal linkages and cooperative programs with historically minority universities and/or minority groups, and (e) other specific student recruitment strategies used to attract minorities and women and other talented populations to preparation programs in educational administration. Respondents were asked the extent to which the strategy was part of their recruitment procedures, and then were asked to assess it in terms of its productivity, strengths, and weaknesses.

Study Findings—Recruitment

Strategies and Their Results

Respondents were asked whether or not they used recruitment strategies that developed formal linkages with school districts. Of the 40 institutions participating in the study, 45% reported that this strategy was definitely a part of their recruitment plan while another 22.5% stated that it was practiced to some extent. Several specific types of linkages with school districts were identified. One of the most often used recruitment strategies was the development of specific working relationships with school districts to help identify potential applicants. For example, one university reported that it targeted key school districts, in a specific metropolitan area, to help identify and recruit talented students. As one respondent noted, "We recruit talented teachers (for administration), through school district/principal nominations, to participate in our summer administrator development academy. This is a six-week full-time experience provided prior to a student's decision to enter the program. Sixty to 70% of these students enter the program with their eyes open." Others underlined the strategy of having many of their institution's graduates refer individuals who they believed would be successful administrators.

The recruitment of a cadre or cohort group to complete a specific administrative program was another popular approach to recruitment. Such applicants often were solicited through nominations by alumni and selected area practitioners. One university recruited a cadre each fall for its doctoral program through the use of a mailed brochure.

The use of summer administrator academies and cooperative internship programs were other recruitment strategies identified by study participants. In addition to a six-week summer academy, one preparation program co-sponsored a leadership academy with the city public school system. Some students in the academy were recruited for the doctoral program. Cooperative internship programs between universities and school districts also were used to recruit talented students to higher degree programs.

Other successful recruitment practices included the use of practitioner advisory groups and consortia that served to recommend persons with high potential for administration, the use of clinical faculty in identifying talented students, and other informal linkages with school personnel.

Respondents were asked to provide their best estimate of the percent of students recruited to their administrative preparation programs through strategies that develop formal linkages with school districts. Percent responses varied widely from 1-2% to as much as 90%. Of the 27 responses, an estimated average for students recruited in this way was 42%.

Additionally, respondents were requested to note the strengths and weaknesses of each recruitment strategy. Formal linkages with school districts for recruitment purposes resulted in a variety of strengths and weaknesses. Commitment to both the preparation program and to the applicant by the school district was noted as a leading strength. Commitment was expressed from two viewpoints. First, respondents were of the opinion that linkages with school districts build a school system's commitment to the university's preparation program; this strategy served to enhance the image of the administration preparation program with both school officials and political leaders of the state. In turn, such ties with school districts tended to develop support for internship programs and to create higher placement rates for program graduates. As stated by one respondent, "Some referrals almost guarantee placement." A second advantage of school linkages for recruitment purposes was student commitment. The nomination by their supervisors and/or others tended to result in a career commitment by individuals. In many instances, students were encouraged to examine their careers prior to being admitted to the program; this self-examination tended to result in greater personal focus and commitment.

Another reported advantage of working cooperatively with school districts was the development of a better pool of candidates for the administration program. Several participants expressed the opinion that relationships with school districts provided a direct contact that was helpful when competing for top students in key areas of administration. One participant noted that the school linkage strategy was a low-cost approach that served to maintain ties with the practitioner community. Another stated that such cooperative school ties greatly enhanced the student selection process.

A variety of weaknesses related to recruitment through school district linkages was reported as well. The primary problem centered on the development of "hard feelings" on the part of school district personnel in those cases when their nominees were not admitted to the program. In many instances, respondents reported that the procedure of having school personnel nominate applicants resulted in the identification of persons with good personal skills but not necessarily ones who were academically talented. According to the respondents, when school district personnel nominate candidates, there is a tendency for programs to accept everyone; there is a "pressure" to admit nominees even though expected admission standards may not be met by some applicants. Thus, there was a loss of control of the admission process. Other respondents expressed the views that recruitment by cohorts resulted in a structured program that included little or no program individualization.

Study participants were asked to assess the results of the recruitment strategy of formal linkages with school districts as well as its overall success. The large majority of study participants was of the opinion that such linkage strategies result in "somewhat better" or "much better" recruitment outcomes. Of the 36 who responded to the question of recruitment results through formal linkages, 91.7% viewed the strategy in a positive manner. When asked about their personal support of this recruitment strategy, 94.4% either "strongly supported" or "supported" it as a successful recruitment activity.

Overall, the recruitment practice involving cooperative working relationships with school districts, school personnel, and program alumni was used quite extensively in UCEA institutions. While some problems were identified in relation to this recruitment strategy, the large majority of respondents viewed it as producing positive results and gave it their personal support.

Recruitment Through Collaboration with Professional Associations and Other Special Groups

A second major recruitment strategy examined in the study was the development of collaboration with professional associations and/or other special groups. This strategy included cooperative efforts with business/management and other public administration groups, state educational associations, and the use of recruitment recommendations from other professional groups. Of the 40 respondents from UCEA member institutions, 16 indicated that they used this strategy for recruitment to some extent.

Relationships with state professional associations constituted the large majority of recruitment activities. For example, one university recruited students through the state's association of school business officials and through women's administration groups. Another institution conducted meetings for teachers around the state who were interested in administration. This activity was completed in cooperation with the state administrators' association. Another approach was that of student recruitment through the use of the congress of principals that governed the preparation program's principals' center. Several institutions held meetings with various state administrator groups for the purpose of being "visible" and conducting program information sessions.

None of the participating preparation institutions mentioned specific relationships with business/management groups for purposes of student recruitment. Some expressed the need, however, to develop strategies that would include closer relationships with both state administrative organizations and other external business groups.

Overall, 40% of the study participants reported the use of student recruitment through collaboration with professional associations and other special groups. Nevertheless, the large majority of those using this approach found it to be beneficial. The strengths of this strategy focused on its ability to identify potential students that otherwise might go unnoticed and the visibility such an approach provided for the preparation institution. One reported weakness of this procedure was the fact that various associations tended to push their own people, and these applicants were not always personally focused and interested in a career in administration.

A relatively small percent of students was being recruited through collaborative relationships with professional associations and other special groups. Overall, an average of 11% of all students was recruited in this manner. However, of those institutions reporting the use of this strategy, 12 of them reported "much better results" or "somewhat better results." As might be expected, these participants gave "strong support" or "support" to the use of a collaborative strategy with professional associations and groups on the basis of its success.

Student Recruitment with Teacher/Administrator Programs on Various College/University Campuses

A third recruitment strategy examined in the study centered on contacts with teacher educational personnel and teachers in training, involvement in career informational programs, and contacts with faculty and students in educational administration on other campuses. Of the 40 participants, 16 (40%) reported the use of this recruitment approach. The strategy was implemented in a variety of ways by preparation institutions. In those instances where a more formal procedure had been implemented, institutions worked directly with "feeder" institutions to provide courses for the master's and specialist's degree programs and then selectively guided these graduates toward doctoral degree programs. Many UCEA institutions established working relationships with non-doctoral degree institutions that tended to direct doctoral students to them.

Informal recruitment approaches took the form of joint meetings with interested students in other institutions, the teaching of courses at other institutions throughout the state whereby talented doctoral students were identified, and interaction among faculty members of state institutions that often resulted in some form of institutional cooperation, including the recruitment of students for various degree pursuits in educational adminstration. Several respondents mentioned that the Danforth Foundation had supported, fostered, and encouraged interaction among the faculty of

various universities that has resulted in a wealth of information being exchanged as well as a renewed visibility of programs that has attracted minorities and women and other talented students from diverse populations.

Student recruitment through interactions with teacher/administrator programs, as reported by the participants, accounted for 5% to 90% of the total students recruited in the various institutions. The mean for recruitment through this strategy was approximately 20%.

Of those institutions reporting the use of such strategies, 85.7% viewed them as producing "much better" or "somewhat better" recruitment results. And, as might be expected, the same percentage either "strongly supported" or "supported" the strategies based on their relative success.

Again, several strengths and weaknesses were associated with working directly with teacher/administrator programs. There was strong judgment that such approaches resulted in the identification of both committed and talented students. These cooperative efforts also tended to result in providing added incentives to prospective program candidates. In some instances, such approaches provided opportunities for university faculty to work with and to observe potential students prior to their official admission to the program. As reported by one respondent, "This is one of our best vehicles to recruit capable doctoral students because we have an opportunity to work with and observe the student for a full semester before admission."

Reported weaknesses in these approaches were few. Some merely stated that "no weaknesses" were apparent to them to-date. However, there was some mention that the students identified through such strategies were not always academically talented even though they might possess certain valued personality characteristics. Other comments centered on the organization of the recruitment process itself. Time requirements and the added responsibilities of university personnel were noted as problems related to approaches of direct relationships with teacher and administrator programs at colleges and universities.

Recruitment Through Formal Linkages and Cooperative Programs with Historically Minority Universities and/or Minority Groups

Recruitment strategies through direct linkages with historically minority universities and/or minority groups were practiced "to some extent" by 36.9% of the participating universities. Thus, nearly two-thirds of the participants reported that this strategy presently was not practiced in their recruitment plan.

The formal linkages reported by the study respondents often included specific programs with other minority institutions in the state. In one instance, the reporting institution noted that it had a formal campus office that provided leadership in regard to minority recruitment and that con-

siderable time and money were allocated to the effort. Others sent mailings to identified minority students that provided them with information on the university and department programs as well as the availability of graduate assistantships and financial aid. Several respondents noted specific linkages with minority institutions that did not offer the doctorate. Through cooperative efforts, talented minorities were approached regarding program opportunities at these UCEA doctoral granting institutions.

A relative small percent of the students reportedly was recruited through linkages with historically minority colleges/universities. No institution reported more than 10% of their students being recruited through this strategy. An estimated mean for all institutions using this approach was 4%.

Of those programs that did use linkages with minority institutions/groups, approximately 57% was of the opinion that it led to "no noticeable differences in results" while 28.6% and 14.3% respectively viewed the results as "somewhat better" or "worse" than prior to its implementation. The respondents who used this strategy for recruitment tended to "support" or "somewhat support" it as an effective procedure.

The strength of this approach to recruitment of students was its potential for increasing minority access to programs in educational administration. As reported by one participant, "Judging by the number of qualified candidates we've seen, this looks like a potent way to recruit talented minorities." Those institutions that had used this approach generally expressed the opinion that some very good minority students had been recruited in this manner although the procedure had not identified large numbers of minorities for their programs.

Other Recruitment Practices/Strategies of Participating UCEA Institutions

Study participants were asked to describe *other* student recruitment strategies to attract minorities and women and other talented populations to their preparation programs. Several such strategies, selected from the many that were reported, include:

> Our graduate school has a minority affairs officer who generates a list of minority students and brings them to campus for interviews. We meet with these students and discuss our programs and their career goals. Also, the graduate school offers special black student fellowships and tuition stipends. Since there is a significant number of black personnel in school districts near us, this department has received several fellowships each year.

> The Danforth Program has particularly appealed to women candidates and they tell me it is because of the support system. They believe that they will have many opportunities to be placed in administrative positions.

> In 1988-89, one of our Board of Trustee members gave us funds to start a black fellowship program.

> The University's International Center has attracted some excellent students, especially from China, which has added another dimension to our program.

> We recruit cohort groups for doctoral study in five separate geographical areas of the state with direct mail to principals and superintendents; this is very effective.

Several respondents expressed concerns about the lack of recruitment efforts at their institutions and indicated a need to implement such strategies. The following comments typify these expressions:

> We are just beginning to make progress in this arena in educational administration. Two other program areas in the department (Adult Education and Foundations) are more active and successful in using these strategies than educational administration. However, we now are making rapid progress.

> Although networking occurs that produces an occasional student, no specific recruitment efforts are made on a regular basis . . . Some efforts are now being organized toward formal recruiting strategies.

> This (recruiting) is hard for us because of our high tuition—and we haven't done a very good job in recruiting minority students. This is an issue that continues to occupy us.

> In a word, we do no systematic recruitment or screening for entry. We depend almost solely on self-selected attrition—during program progress, however, we do give good students selected encouragement to go forward—but this is haphazard and varies considerably depending on the faculty member involved.

> We are frequently surprised at both "successful" and "unsuccessful" students—upon hearing who got what job. The market out there is very mysterious.

Summary—Recruitment Strategies

Concerns for the lack of minorities and women and other talented populations being recruited to programs in educational administration have been expressed by many professional boards, associations, and individuals nationally. A study of the recruitment practices of UCEA institutions was initiated by the UCEA Program Center for Preparation Programs in 1991. Eighty percent of the UCEA member institutions participated.

Four specific student recruitment strategies were examined. Establishing linkages with school districts proved to be a viable strategy for realizing successful recruitment results. Approximately two-thirds of the participating institutions reported that they practiced some recruitment activities related to cooperative working relationships with school district personnel. Working with school personnel to identify potential applicants, the establishment of cohorts through nominations by school district administrators, administrator academies that are co-sponsored by universities and school districts, and the use of practitioner advisory groups for recruitment purposes were among the linkage strategies reported by the study participants. Approximately 42% of students, on the average, was recruited through this process. The large majority of respondents, whose programs used this linkage strategy, gave it high marks relative to productivity. Commitment to the program on the part of students and school district personnel was noted as one of the leading strengths of this recruitment approach. The primary problem related to the procedure reportedly was the possibility of "hard feelings" that sometimes resulted when a student, who has been nominated by the district, was not admitted.

A second strategy examined in the study was that of recruitment through collaboration with professional associations and other special groups. Of the 40 UCEA institutions participating, 40% reported the use of this collaborative procedure. Relative to this strategy, collaboration with state professional associations constituted the large majority of recruitment activities. None of the respondents reported collaborative arrangements with business groups. A relatively small percent of students was recruited through this specific strategy (an average of 11%). The principal benefit of this approach focused on its resulting contacts with "diverse" professionals that led to the identification of potential students that otherwise might not have been identified. Of those institutions that had used this collaborative strategy, the large majority indicated that better recruitment results had been realized because of its success.

Student recruitment through contacts with teacher/administrator programs on college/university campuses was a third recruitment strategy examined in the study. For the most part, institutions that were utilizing this approach worked directly with "feeder" institutions in some manner that resulted in the identification of potential students. Often, these relationships were established with other non-doctoral granting institutions in the state. An average of approximately 20% of the students was recruited through the use of this procedure. In most of the institutions that used this

procedure, its results were productive in attracting new and talented students to their programs. A major strength was the identification of both committed and talented students. Few problems or weaknesses were reported by those institutions using this recruitment approach.

A final recruitment strategy examined in the study was that of formal linkages and cooperative programs with historically minority universities and/or minority groups. This procedure had the most limited use among all those examined. Approximately one-third of the respondents indicated that it was part of their recruitment activities. No institution recruited more than 10% of its students through this procedure. Overall, this approach averaged approximately 4% of the total students recruited. Users of this strategy were less positive about its success. In fact, 57% of those institutions that used some kind of linkage with historically minority institutions noted that it resulted in "no noticeable difference" in regard to more successful recruitment results. Some respondents did comment that the strategy was a "potent" way to gain access to talented minority students, however.

Some respondents did report on other recruitment strategies in operation in their programs. For example, the benefits of having strong student support through fellowships, assistantships, and other forms of financial aid were noted. Also, the reports by the study participants made it quite clear that "walk-ins" constituted a relatively large pool of educational administration students in many of the institutions. In fact, on the average, approximately one in four students was a "walk-in."

Study Findings—Selection Practices

The second major study topic was student selection practices for programs in educational administration. Specifically, selection strategies concerning (a) the use of multiple sources of evidence, (b) assessments regarding the applicant's success as an educator, (c) assessments of an applicant's potential for success in educational administration, (d) specific weights given to various selection criteria, and (e) the criteria considered to be most important in selection decisions were examined.

All but one of the participating institutions reported the use of multiple sources of evidence for purposes of student selection to programs in educational administration. The extent of the use of the various selection evidence by participating institutions is indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Selection Evidence by Participating Institutions

Selection Evidence	Used by Number of Institutions
Grade Point Average (includes Graduate and Undergraduate GPA's)	28
Recommendations/Reference	26
Graduate Record Examination Scores	26
Writing Sample(s)	22
Personal Interview	10
Miller Analogies Test	9
Past Work at the Institution	6
Statement of Personal Goals/Beliefs	6
Prior Experience (promise, accomplishment)	6
Other Criteria Mentioned	8

Each respondent provided a specific description of the selection evidence used and, in most instances, stipulated the required standards for grade point averages and test scores for admission. On the basis of the data provided by many of the participants, on the average, an undergraduate g.p.a. of 2.8, a graduate g.p.a. of 3.3, and a GRE score of 950 (verbal plus quantitative; mode for GRE was 1,000) were standard requirements for admission to graduate degree programs in educational administration. Some respondents noted that the specific requirements applied only to the master's degree or for selection to the doctoral program while others did not make this differentiation.

While some institutions used several different kinds of evidence for selection purposes, others used only two or three. For example, one institution reported the use of test scores (MAT for the master's degree and GRE for the doctorate), three letters of reference including one from an administrative supervisor, and a letter of intent. Another institution used the undergraduate g.p.a., graduate g.p.a., all sections of the GRE, three letters of reference with specific criteria, a goal statement, a resume, a writing activity, an oral presentation, and a structured interview.

Participants were asked to list the specific evidence examined for student selection purposes and also to provide their best judgment as to the weight given to each item in their selection process. The results of this inquiry are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Weight Given to Specific Selection Criteria

Selection Evidence	Weight Given by Institutions		
	High	Medium	Low
Graduate Record Examination	15	10	1
Grade Point Average	14	14	0
Recommendations/References	9	13	4
Writing Sample(s)	9	11	2
Personal Interview	8	2	0
Miller Analogies Test	2	7	0
Courses Taken at the Institution	5	1	0
Statement of Beliefs/Goals	3	3	0
Prior Experience, Promise, Accomplishments	3	1	2
Other Evidence (e.g., prior degree, assessment center results, written examination results, resume, written autobiography, oral presentation, publications)	4	3	1

A few respondents had difficulty in assigning specific weights to various items of evidence. These respondents expressed the view that professional judgments were made on the basis of the evidence presented across all areas. Some stated that there was no specific weightings given to the evidence, but some judgment was required by the selection committee.

In a follow-up question, study participants were asked to list the evidence considered as being most important in the final decision to deny or to approve the admission of a student to their program. While responses varied considerably to this question, the most frequently listed evidence of most importance, in rank order, was the grade point average, the Graduate Record Examination score, professional accomplishments, and the statement of personal goals and beliefs. Other evidence listed as being of greatest importance included the group interview, writing sample, and examples of the student's work. Respondents also were asked to list evidence that was "next in importance" regarding student selection. The grade point average, Graduate Record Examination score, and writing sample led the listing of being "next in importance" with other evidence such as professional experience, the personal interview, recommendations, goal statement, the written pre-test, the MAT, and professional experience also being mentioned.

When asked how much weight was given to the criterion of *academic ability* in the final decision to approve or to deny the admission of a student, approximately two-thirds of the respondents reported that academic ability received the greatest weight among all other selection criteria considered. The remaining one-third indicated that academic ability received equal weight among all other selection criteria considered. No one reported that academic ability received less weight than other selection criteria.

Participants commented on their selection procedures regarding student academic ability as follows:

> Special consideration is given to minority students, including their institution.
>
> The GRE score appears to be a primary factor relative to academic potential except for minorities.
>
> Academic ability is defined as the ability to acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills that will enable the individual to pursue a chosen career. This includes the possession of clear career goals.
>
> I suspect most of us look for minimal achievement on every criterion plus one or more pieces of evidence suggesting significant promise of professional potential or actual accomplishment.
>
> We look at everything in the (academic) record and try to come to an overall judgment. A student is never accepted and rarely rejected on the basis of one criterion.
>
> We are not selective at admission beyond the graduate grade point average.

Evidence Relative to Prior Success as an Educator

A specific emphasis in the study was placed on student selection based on an assessment of the applicant's success as an educator. This consideration included evidence collected through the use of site visitations, personal interviews, nominations by colleagues and other administrators, portfolio reviews, and other evidence that supported the applicant's effectiveness in professional education.

Student selection strategies for assessing an applicant's success as an educator "definitely were used" by 42.5% as part of their selection procedures. Another 42.5% reported that such evidence was "used to some extent" in their selection process.

Respondents were asked to describe the selection strategies/procedures used for assessing an applicant's success as an educator. The following is a selection of these descriptions:

Personal interviews of candidates are excellent (for this purpose). Students have the opportunity to explain reasons for seeking the degree and the whole department has a chance to ask questions. At the Master's and Ed.S. levels, we concentrate on the demonstration of requisite skills.

We utilize letters of recommendation (preferably one from a supervisor), ask for list of professional honors, and interview all doctoral applicants.

We mainly rely on references and personal statements of experience and goals. Sometimes interviews are used, sometimes written papers, and sometimes phone calls for references regarding the applicant's success in the field.

We use the results of two interviews by the faculty. For cohort programs we also have utilized assessment center activities.

Assessment Center (methods) will become a part of our program in the Fall of '92.

We do not make site visits, but rely on "paper" evidence for this information.

Many respondents noted that their process relied heavily on personal knowledge of the applicant by faculty members and/or "reliable" sources in the field. Most often a recommendation from a school district administrator was considered as "documentation" of the applicant's success as a practicing educator.

In a related question, participants were asked to give their judgment relative to the weights given to various evidence for assessing one's success as an educator. In general, the personal interview was named as the most often used data source for this purpose and, overall, was given a relatively high weighting in the final decision to admit an individual to the program. Personal references/recommendations also were used quite extensively for this purpose. Other less frequently used strategies for assessing success as an educator included examination of an applicant's portfolio (teaching and administration record), career goal statements, simulation results from inbaskets and other exercises, writing samples, peer ratings and colleague nominations, resume/vita, personal relations skills, oral presentations, and others.

For the purpose of gathering information relative to an applicant's success as an educator, the respondents named the use of the personal interview, personal recommendations, and the applicant's professional record as the three items of evidence of greatest importance and value.

Overall, nearly 60% was of the opinion that evidence relating to success as an educator received equal weight among selection criteria. Another

19% viewed such evidence as having the greatest weight among all selection criteria considered, and 21% believed that evidence related to the prior success of an applicant as an educator received less weight than other selection criteria considered in their selection process.

Some of the respondents chose to comment on the matter of prior success as a selection basis. As one respondent stated, "Students who have been very successful as administrators or supervisors receive favorable consideration in the selection process." Another noted that, "Prior success receives some weight; it is balanced against other factors. Potential for success in an administrative position is also important."

Selection Based on an Assessment of an Applicant's Potential for Success in the Practice of Educational Administration

A third consideration relative to selection focused on evidence of potential success as a practicing administrator. Thirty of 32 respondents who answered the question reported that the strategy of assessing the applicant's *potential* for success in the practice of educational administration was part of their selection process. However, from the 30 institutions that used the process, 20 respondents indicated that such evidence was used only "to some extent." Perhaps the most unique activity for determining potential success was the use of an administrator assessment center. While the use of assessment methodology was not widely reported by UCEA member institutions, there was some indication that this strategy was being considered. As noted by one respondent, "We are currently putting in place a new program that will require assessment center experience as an admission practice." One institution reported the use of assessment center techniques after students were admitted.

Of greatest importance and value as evidence for assessing the applicant's potential success, in the opinion of the respondents, were specific recommendations and references by district personnel and members of the faculty, the personal interview, and assessment center data. Other evidence cited as beneficial for this purpose was from peer ratings, site visitations, professional recognition/accomplishments, and career commitment.

The majority of the institutions, which reported the use of evidence for assessing administrative potential (73.9%), indicated that such evidence received "equal weight" among all other selection criteria considered. Only one respondent indicated that such evidence received the "greatest weight" while 21.7% indicated that it received "less weight" than other selection criteria.

As one participant noted, "While evidence for assessing potential success is important, it is not primary in our selection process. We do admit some candidates who later discover they want nothing to do with administration."

Participants had a final opportunity to describe other specific student selection practices in an open-ended section of the study instrument. Many of the comments recorded in this section tended to duplicate those made in previous sections of the questionnaire. One institution noted participation in a Job Fair that aided the recruitment/selection processes. One respondent reported that "We attempt to recruit and utilize minorities and women as role models to present an image that these (programs) are opportunities for success in educational administration." Another respondent commented, "We set up a communication network among program graduates and prospective students. This is particularly effective with minority students. Information meetings are held with prospective students; graduates address the groups in some districts." Another commented that "Somewhat lower test scores, g.p.a., etc., for minorities are acceptable."

Summary—Selection Practices

Several specific considerations relative to selection practices were examined in the study. Virtually all of the respondents cited the use of multiple sources of evidence for student selection. The leading sources of evidence for determining program admission for students were the grade point average, recommendations/references, the Graduate Record Examination score, the use of writing samples, personal interviews, and Miller Analogies Test results, although the use of other kinds of evidence was reported as well. While minimum standards for admission were somewhat difficult to ascertain from participants' responses, on the average, an undergraduate g.p.a. of 2.8, a graduate g.p.a. of 3.3, and a GRE score of 950 on the verbal and quantitative sections of the exam were the most "typical" requirements for program admission. (**Note:** The mode for GRE requirement was 1,000 on the V and Q.)

The results of the GRE, grade point averages, recommendations, writing samples, and the personal interview were weighted the heaviest in regard to selection criteria. Personal accomplishments in the profession and statements of goals and beliefs also were given considerable weight in some UCEA institutions.

Two-thirds of the study participants indicated that academic ability was given the "greatest" weight in relation to other selection criteria. Another one-third gave academic ability "equal" weight among all other factors.

In a large percentage of the institutions (95%), selection criteria to determine the applicant's prior success as an educator were used. Personal interviews, personal recommendations from the field, resumes, and, to some extent, assessment center methods and simulation exercises were among the evidence examined to determine prior success.

Nearly all of the participants who responded to the inquiry reported that they assessed the potential success of the applicant for educational administration as well. One of the more "unique" strategies for gaining evidence in this area was the use of the assessment center, although the use of specific personal recommendations, personal interviews, and knowledge of applicants on the part of faculty members were the primary sources of such information. Most respondents (73.9%) reported that evidence concerning potential success was given "equal" weight among all other criteria considered for student admission.

Among other selection activities/strategies reported were the use of Job Fairs, the use of minorities and women as role models, and communication networks between graduates and applicants for the purpose of providing program information.

Related Considerations Concerning Student Recruitment and Selection

Several other questions were presented to the respondents in order to ascertain their thoughts concerning methods that have resulted in the recruitment of their "best" students, factors that likely would determine the denial or admission of a borderline student, the extent to which programs used special firms to "market" their programs, and the responsibility assumed by the department/program for student placement upon leaving the program. These questions and resulting data are presented in the following section.

Question 1. Think for a moment about the "best" students that you have admitted to your program in the last three years. To the best of your memory, how were these students recruited?

Responses to the above inquiry tended to reveal more informal than formal recruitment strategies. According to the information provided by the participants, "best" students are "self-selected"; such students were not recruited formally but merely chose to come to the university and generally found the program through word of mouth. However, recommendations by faculty members or by program graduates led the listing of how "best" students were recruited. Some respondents noted that their best students appeared to select their preparation institution program due to the reputation of the university. Also, the existence of financial assistance was named as a primary factor for attracting highly talented students. Others mentioned the encouragement given to students by school districts and the cohort process in their programs as the basis for attracting their "best" students to the educational administration program.

Question 2. Assume that you are considering the admission of a student to your preparation program and a degree of "uncertainty" exists re-

garding his/her qualifications. What likely would be the ***deciding factors*** *that would ultimately determine the acceptance or denial of the applicant?*

Decision factors relative to the denial/admission of borderline applicants varied in the responses. Among the deciding factors named most frequently were evidence of professional promise and commitment, including past performance and career goals; academic ability as revealed in past performance in course work and test scores; faculty member recommendations; professional experience; and consideration of all data with the possibility of additional references and interviews. Some individuals reported that the Graduate Record Examination score and the grade point average would constitute the basis for the final decision for admission. Other specific final factors for decisions included affirmative action considerations, ability to do doctoral research, "space" available (quotas), results from interviews, peer input, and visits with a district supervisor known to the preparation institution.

One respondent noted that such a borderline student would likely be admitted to the educational specialist or master's degrees. Another mentioned that provisional admission would be the most likely decision for such students at his institution.

Question 3. Which statement below best reflects your use of special firms to help "market" your program of educational administration?

Only two of the 39 respondents who replied to this inquiry reported that they had used special firms to help market their programs on a "limited" basis. In these two programs, such a strategy was "somewhat beneficial" to recruitment. Neither of the two respondents, however, was of the opinion that the use of special firms increased the number and quality of minorities and women and other talented students recruited into their programs. The use of outside marketing firms for recruitment purposes was not popular among UCEA institutions.

Question 4. To what extent does your department/program take responsibility for student placement upon leaving the program?

Of the 38 respondents to this inquiry, 55.3% reported that the placement of their graduates held a "limited priority" in their programs. The institutions expressed the view that they were really not organized for assuming a major role in the placement of their students but did so on somewhat of an informal basis.

Another 26.3% gave placement of graduates a "high priority" and indicated that they assumed a major role in the placement of their students. The remaining 21.4% reported that the placement of their graduates was not a priority in their programs; job placement was assumed primarily by the graduates themselves.

In a related question, study participants were asked to assess the importance of the placement of students upon graduation relative to the

recruiting of students for their programs. The largest number of respondents viewed student placement upon graduation as being "highly important" relative to recruiting students for their programs. More than half of the participants expressed this view. Another 38.5% believed placement to be of "some importance" while 10.3% was of the opinion that student placement had "little importance" to their recruitment program.

While UCEA institutions were not well organized for the placement of their graduates, with some exceptions, most of them were of the opinion that such an effort would have positive effects on their recruitment programs.

Summary—Related Considerations Concerning Student Recruitment and Selection

This final section of the study instrument focused on several questions related to such matters as the efficacy of recruitment strategies for attracting the "best" students, the use of marketing firms to promote programs, and department responsibility taken for student placement upon graduation.

In the opinion of most respondents, "best" students most often were not specifically recruited but were "self-selected". While other plans for attracting talented students were noted by participants, self-selection, along with personal recommendations by faculty members and graduates, were reported as being most productive.

A variety of evidence was mentioned relative to factors that would likely determine the denial or admission of a borderline student. Evidence of professional promise and commitment, academic ability, test scores, faculty recommendations, and professional experience were among the decision factors listed most often.

The use of marketing firms to promote programs in educational administration was nearly non-existent. Only two UCEA institutions noted a limited use of this strategy, and these institutions gave it rather low marks as a productive recruitment tool.

Only about one-fourth of UCEA member institutions gave high priority to student placement upon graduation. One-half of those reporting stated that placement was given limited priority in their programs. Nevertheless, nearly 90% viewed student placement as an important consideration relative to student recruitment. The implication was that, while many institutions were not doing a great deal regarding student placement, they believed this activity to be of importance.

Conclusions

This study centered on determining the general practices of UCEA member institutions relative to student recruitment and selection and

finding what strategies were implemented to attract minorities and women and other talented populations of potential practicing administrators to preparation programs in educational administration. Forty UCEA member institutions participated in the study.

Study results relative to student recruitment supported several conclusions. First, the development of formal linkages with school districts is a productive strategy for recruiting purposes. Approximately two-thirds of the institutions used this strategy to recruit. Its productivity was reflected in the fact that, on the average, 42% of students who entered educational administration was recruited through linkages exemplified by special cadre programs, on-site recruitment programs, recommendations from the field, and other cooperative university/school programs. While this approach to recruitment did have certain weaknesses, overall results were reported as being quite positive.

Forty percent of the respondents indicated the use of collaboration with professional associations and other special groups for recruitment purposes. About 11% of the students, on the average, was recruited to preparation programs in this manner. While less productive relative to the overall number of students recruited, this approach appears to be a positive one. Some collaborative approaches with professional associations were done more for "public relations" reasons than for viable recruitment purposes. Any recruitment approach that requires the cooperation of external groups carries with it the probability that some recruited students will not meet minimal admission standards and the denial of these persons can result in "hard feelings" on the part of the district, association, or individual who recommends the applicant.

Student recruitment through involvement with teacher/administrator programs on university and college campuses appears to be a viable recruitment approach. Approximately 20% of prospective students for programs in educational administration was recruited in this way. Some preparation institutions have a greater opportunity to benefit from cooperative approaches with other colleges and universities than others. For example, an institution that has a "monopoly" on the granting of doctoral degrees in a region or state could more easily develop working relationships with non-granting doctoral institutions than with those which had the same degree opportunities for students.

No respondent in the study ever mentioned a concern relative to the many "external doctorate" programs that exist. In the several opportunities for respondents to state their consternation concerning the "lesser" degree programs available to students in their state, none ever noted that such programs were detrimental to their preparation programs or that talented students were attracted away from their programs by these alternative routes to degree completion.

While seemingly a viable strategy for the recruitment of minority students, recruitment through formal linkages and cooperative programs with historically minority universities and/or minority groups reportedly was the least productive of all approaches. While nearly 37% of the respondents indicated some use of this approach, they noted that, on the average, only 4% of their students were recruited in this way. The study did not determine the extent to which institutions were in close proximity to historically minority institutions. Ready access would have a direct effect on the ability to develop working relationships with such institutions. The number of such institutions and groups within the states is a factor as well.

If many different and/or unique recruitment strategies were used in UCEA programs for educational administration, only a few were reported. Other than the specific recruitment strategies examined in the study, "walk-ins" constituted approximately 25% of the students who entered the educational administration programs in the last three years.

Finally, the extent to which UCEA member institutions were meeting the specific UCEA membership requirements relative to student recruitment and selection could not be determined. While most UCEA institutions use identifiable strategies to recruit talented students, institutions likely do not have on hand "written recruitment and selection plans" with narrative descriptions, timelines, and documents used in annual recruitment efforts. And, while these data might be "on file" within the various preparation departments, the respondents supplied no evidence that specific records were maintained relative to such indicators as "applicants for the most recent year, their scores and other indicators used for screening, racial designation, gender, and whether they (applicants) were admitted" as stipulated in UCEA's adopted requirements for member institutions.

In short, UCEA member institutions, without question, were employing various strategies to recruit minorities and women and other talented populations to their preparation programs. The charge that the large majority of students in educational administration comes from "walk-ins" was not supported by the data. A large number of preparation programs was relying on external nominations.

The use of multiple sources of evidence for student selection was being met by nearly all UCEA institutions. Institutions were relying heavily on the traditional evidence of grade point averages, recommendations, and test scores for student admission although other evidence such as personal interviews, assessment center methodology, writing samples, and other such data were used in many institutions to select students. Whether the admission standards of many of the UCEA institutions are sufficiently high to "attract the brightest and most capable candidates" to their programs, however, is questionable. On the average, an undergraduate g.p.a. of 2.8,

a graduate g.p.a. of 3.3, and a GRE score of only 950 (verbal and quantitative) were being required for program admission.

Finally, respondents clearly noted that student recruitment and selection were highly significant program considerations. Several participants commented that they were much aware that their departments needed to improve their efforts in student recruitment and selection. Such awareness should lead to better efforts and results. The findings from this study should prove helpful to an institution for the improvement of student recruitment and selection plans.

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CHAPTER 3

Challenging the Conventional Assumptions About the Preparation Programs for Aspiring Superintendents

Daniel C. Douglas
Bowling Green State University

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine implied conventional assumptions about the preparation of aspiring superintendents. First, literature pertaining to the views held by practitioners of administrator preparation programs in general and those programs preparing administrators to become superintendents in particular will be examined. Second, the research conducted by the UCEA Center for the Study of Superintendents and School Boards will be reviewed for implications for the restructuring of superintendent preparation programs. Third, some proposals will be made concerning the need to consider a "triad" of elements in preparation programs and the development of a clinical professor model.

What Do Practitioners Think of Educational Leadership Programs?

There is no shortage of critics of educational administration preparation programs, but few rigorous empirical studies have been conducted concerning the way that practitioners view their preparation programs. House, Sommerville, and Zimmer (1990) pointed out that little is known about the effectiveness of preparation programs. The observations of professors and informal assessments and sentiments of practitioners have been depended upon to determine program efficacy. The Beck Study (1987) is one of the few attempts to measure practitioners' views of administrator preparation programs. House et al. (1990) asked beginning principals to self assess their levels of expertise in a number of areas. Their superintendents were asked to rate the principal's level of expertise as well. Then the principals were

asked to assess their university program. The House study reached two conclusions. First, practitioners and academicians rated the importance of ten discrete areas of competence quite differently; and second, practitioners did not value their university programs. Survey results suggested that principals did not value university educational programs as a source of competence as highly as on-the-job experience, common sense, workshops and inservice, and modeling after other administrators(p. 3).

Hoyle (1989) acknowledged that administrator training programs are not highly regarded but pointed out that the 1987 study conducted by the National Center for Education Information indicated that superintendents were generally pleased with their programs. Cunningham and Hentges (1982) found in their study that superintendents had generally positive feelings about their university training but attributed a great deal of this satisfaction to relationships with professors rather than to instruction. "Superintendents in the 1982 study feel good about the quality of their preparation. Over 70 percent evaluate their programs of graduate study as 'excellent' or 'good'" (p. 87). Further, one-third of those queried cited the high quality of professors as the major strength of their graduate study program.

Hoyle (1989) maintained that preparation programs are "fragmented, unfocused, and lacking a carefully sequenced curriculum" (p. 376). He also pointed to the virtual open enrollment policies of most departments of educational leadership as being a major impediment to the development of good preparation programs. Hoyle also noted that the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration recommended that at least 300 universities and colleges terminate their preparation programs.

The Executive Director of the National Association of Secondary School Principals pointed to a number of reports that were very critical of administrator preparation programs. "Repeated surveys by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and by the American Association of School Administrators confirm that principals and superintendents believe that their preparation was seriously deficient" (Thomson, 1989, p. 372). He was particularly disturbed by the lack of involvement by practitioners in program development. Lewis (1991) called for a radically new role for the superintendent to play in the restructuring movement and criticized preparation programs for focusing " . . . too much on abstract managerial theory and providing little hands-on practice in real-life situations" (p. 42).

The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) under the sponsorship of UCEA published the report, *Leaders for America's Schools*. According to the report at least five full-time-equivalent (FTE) professors are needed to constitute the "critical mass" necessary to become a viable department of educational leadership. They found that the

median number of full-time faculty members was 3.9 and declining. Fewer than 200 of the 505 programs examined received adequate funding. One recommendation made by the Commission was to form a "policy board." The National Policy Board for Educational Administration prepared a report in which nine recommendations were made. The implications of some of the recommendations were that: (a) women and minorities were under represented; (b) entrance standards were lax; (c) many faculties were weak; (d) the curricula were not grounded in the problems of practice; (e) relationships with school districts were inadequate particularly with regard to clinical study, field residency, and applied research; and (f) accreditation standards were insufficient and enforcement inadequate.

Even reports and studies that are not directly critical of educational leadership training programs are emphatic that sweeping changes are necessary. Shibles (1988) noted that "Dramatic changes are needed in programs to prepare school administrators if they are to lead their schools and faculties rather than just manage them" (p. 2). He suggested that school administrators risk becoming "anachronisms" because preparation programs do not respond to the changing forces within educational settings.

UCEA Board-Superintendent Center Studies

In the fall of 1987, the UCEA Program Center for the Study of Superintendents and School Boards was established at the Ohio State University. The rationale for its formation was the belief that superintendents work in a turbulent environment and that boards of education were forced to struggle with troubling ambiguities. The Center set about establishing a research agenda on the study of superintendents, school boards, and their interactions based in part on Schon's conceptualization of the "reflective practitioner." Using the Delphi Technique, superintendents and board members from 35 states were asked to identify issues they were facing over the next ten years. After a number of iterations, their relative importance was established. Throughout the process narrative comments were solicited as well. The results of this study were reported to UCEA at the 1989 convention.

A second study was commissioned in which the chairperson (or designee) of each UCEA department of educational leadership was asked to participate in the same manner as the first one. Events were generated using the Delphi Technique and the data analyzed. A paper for the 1990 UCEA Convention reported professors of educational leadership viewed the future far differently than did superintendents and board members. Figure 1 displays data comparing the frequency of the issues listed by professors, superintendents, and board members.

Figure 1: Comparison of Frequency of Issue Listing by Professors, Superintendents, and Board Members

Issue	Professor Rank	Professor %	Superintendent Rank	Superintendent %	Board Members Rank	Board Members %
Governance/Structure	1	100	3	54	5	42
Mission/Curriculum	2	65	1	85	2	78
Financing Schools	3	65	2	77	1	89
School Community Relations	4	50	0	0	12	17
Changing Demographics	5	50	7	31	4	47
Students at Risk	6	25	9	21	3	53
Technology	7	20	8	28	10	22
Equity/Excellence/ Accountability	8	20	5	44	0	0
Recruitment of Staff	9	20	4	44	7	25
Sociological Concerns	10	15	0	0	0	0
Quality of Teaching & Administration	11	15	0	0	6	39
Professional Concerns	12	10	12	13	0	0
Collective Bargaining	13	10	0	0	8	25
Planning for the Future	15	5	11	13	0	0
Federal/State/Courts Encroachment	0	0	6	36	9	22
Staff Development	0	0	10	15	0	0
School Board Membership	0	0	0	0	12	19

Professors appeared to be much more interested in issues relating to the altering of the traditional structure and authority systems within public education. While about half of the superintendents and board members listed events relating to this issue, every professor listed at least one issue relating to the governmental structure of the schools. Mission and related curriculum issues were of the greatest interest to superintendents and second to school finance among the board members. The financing of schools was rated no lower than third by any group but was of greater concern to the practitioners than to the professors. A greater percentage of professors (50%, ranking 4th) listed school and community relations issues than did board members (17%, ranking 12th). The superintendents in the study did not list a single issue that could be classified as public relations or communications.

Changing demographics and students at risk appear to be related issues, and indeed the three groups were similar in their views in these areas. Technology issues appeared on one of five event generation sheets and were the most closely clustered across the three groups. Superintendents were

the most concerned about equity, excellence, opportunity, quality, and accountability problems. Professors also expressed concerns in this topic in contrast to board members who listed none. Professors and board members were similarly interested in staff recruitment problems but to a much lesser degree than were superintendents.

Some of the professors raised concerns about sociological issues such as the growing disparity between the rich and poor, changing values in society, and the possible disintegration of the middle class. While this issue was similar to "changing demographics," it seemed to have a distinctly different "flavor" that was not reflected by either the superintendents or board members. The superintendents' group appeared to be unconcerned about the quality of teaching and administration. The professors were somewhat interested in this area but not to the same degree as board members. Professors and superintendents were nearly identical in the degree of interest in professional concerns such as salaries, status, and roles of teachers and administrators, but school board members did not list any items that could be interpreted as professional concerns. Collective bargaining issues were noted by professors substantially less often than by board members, and superintendents generated more. All three groups expressed concerns about health and drugs issues with boards and superintendents listing them nearly equally, but professors listed them less than half as frequently. While planning for the future issues were not listed by board members, both professors and superintendents did.

Professors did not cite problems in the topics of encroachment (federal, state, courts), staff development, or school board membership, but both superintendents or school board members did.

As noted in the 1990 study, professors of educational leadership appear to be more interested in the restructuring of the schools than were superintendents and board members, although all three groups recognized that current organizational patterns of the schools may need to be altered. There was a consensus that the mission/curriculum and financing issues were related and were, without question, the greatest concern to all three groups. These three issues are highly interdependent and could be the cornerstone upon which the redesign of programs could be built.

The failure to recognize the confluence of these issues could only reduce the probability of producing meaningful reform. In an environment in which there may be dissatisfaction with current practice, professors must recognize that visionary administrators will need to develop a range of skills to effect change and to garner convergence when proposed solutions are frequently diverse and contradictory.

Issues related to school and community relations were generated on one-half of the professor's surveys but on fewer that one in five of the board member's. Why did superintendents not generate a single issue in this topic? In meetings with practicing superintendents, explanations have been offered that included statements such as, "PR is so much a part of the job, it is just assumed," to "It may have been implied within other issue areas," to "No superintendent wants to be considered to be a slick snake oil salesperson." These explanations are still unsettling and disquieting. Some studies have reported that public relations are a major function of the superintendency (Cunningham et al., 1982; Wilson, 1979; & Wilson 1980).

Program reformers may wish to conduct some sort of "perception checking" and design a program that conveys the importance of relationships between and among school constituent groups. Kindred (1990) argues that the primary mission of school public relations is to improve student achievement through improved school and community relations.

Although not mentioned as often as governance, mission, and finance, the issues of changing demographics, at risk students, technology, and personnel matters were important to all three groups. Educational leadership reform efforts should reflect aspects of the problems inherent in these issues. Some could consider technological issues and staffing matters to be at opposite poles, but there appears to be consensus that both are important, and, in some ways, related. All seemed rather concerned about attracting the "best and the brightest" into teaching and administration.

In other issues, the possibility of dissonance in program reform is evident. Professors and superintendents raised concerns about equity, excellence, and accountability, but board members did not. If boards of education are generally representative of the communities they serve, the recognition that initiatives in these areas could produce discord is rather important. If program reformers wish to pursue sociological issues, problems in these areas may not be as important to superintendents and their boards of education. The perception of the need to improve the quality of current and aspiring teachers and administrators varies widely among the three groups with board members being the most concerned.

Some Considerations

Making sense of the various views of leadership is challenging. For example, throughout the literature, the call is made for the creation of educational leaders who are dedicated to more democratic forms of governance and who instill a "shared vision" with both internal and external publics. Mulkeen and Cambron-McCabe (1991) espouse the concept of the

". . . administrator as inquirer engaged collaboratively in the study of schooling . . . emphasizing the spirit of partnership . . . in the achievement of a shared vision" (p. 3). Glasser (1990) suggests that a new method of managing schools should focus on quality, as championed by W. Edwards Deming, to get from a traditional "boss-teacher," highly centralized, top-down management system to that of one in which teachers and the community feel empowered, and there is a commonly held strategic view of the role and function of the schools (pp. 425-435).

Perhaps superintendency training programs should not be based on academic disciplines but instead around "problems of practice" as espoused by Murphy (1990) and others. "Providers . . . should reconstitute the syllabus for training around the skills, dispositions, and behaviors that comprise the restructuring leader" (p. 64). Murphy has suggested that the reform of educational leadership programs should include curriculum revisions "... constructed around problems of practice (as opposed to being based on academic disciplines)" (p. 5).

The National Policy Board's call for higher admission standards, testing, "critical mass" FTE levels, and more rigorous residency requirements are well taken and appropriate for the preparation of superintendents. The National Policy Board's recommendation concerning the EdD could become the prerequisite to national certification and state licensure and applied more readily (or at least initially) to the superintendency. The Board's recommendations for curricular reform would appear to correlate with the findings of the Center's studies with a few exceptions. The "elements of the curriculum developed to transmit a common core of knowledge and skills, grounded in the problems of practice" include:

- Societal and cultural influences on schooling
- Teaching and learning processes and school improvement
- Organizational theory
- Methodologies of organizational studies and policy analysis
- Leadership and management processes and functions
- Policy studies and politics of education
- Moral and ethical dimensions of schooling. (p. 6)

Four other topics should be added, including the issues of changing demographics, students at risk, technology, and strategic/long range planning. In addition, the traditional course on the superintendency should be modified with a new emphasis on board and superintendent relationships. Wilson (1979 and 1980) points out that a major factor in the success or failure of the superintendent was the relationship held with members of the board of education.

The restructuring of superintendency preparation programs will have little impact because consideration is not being given to the inclusion of what I call the "triad": *knowledge, training, and development.* The reports cited in this paper dealt primarily with resources and course content; i.e. organization and delivery of knowledge. Strangely, the training function is largely disregarded even though it is a major component of most professional schools. Medical schools, for example, dedicate nearly half of their four-year programs to clinical training. The National Policy Board report (1989) does recommend that "... long term, formal relationships be established between universities and school districts to create partnership sites for clinical study, field residency, and applied research" (p. 5). Training components should be contained in most superintendency courses with an emphasis on field-based case studies and activities.

Missing entirely in any of the studies or reports is the need to include a developmental component. Schön, (1983) in *The Reflective Practitioner* points out that many exceptional leaders are highly intuitive. He suggests that one way to strengthen intuitive powers is through reflection. Hoyle (1989) notes that those who are preparing to be superintendents have some intuitive and creative potential and that there is a need to provide opportunities for the exercise of intuition and imagination. Development components such as the Myers-Briggs Temperament Sorter, Blanchard's leadership behavioral analysis instruments, and Lafferty's stress evaluation reports could be used to assist aspiring superintendents to prepare for the human relations aspects of the position. Interestingly, the lack of human relations skills was cited frequently in the Wilson (1980) study and others as a reason for the lack of success of superintendents, yet developmental components are rarely contained in superintendent preparation programs.

While many reports call for closer relationships between the field and universities, such relationships are not likely to be fostered until clinical professorships are created. One form often discussed is the creation of the teaching or clinical professor position in the same manner as research professorships. One who assumes this position would become a member of the educational leadership department, teach courses, assist with the supervision of field placements, assume mentoring duties, and provide a practitioner's perspective for program reform. Without the clinical professor's active participation in departmental activities, real reform based upon the needs of practicing administrators is less likely to occur.

In Way of Summary: Some Personal Observations

A few years ago when I was a superintendent of schools, the president of the local university invited me and the members of my cabinet to attend their annual symposium. A professor presented her research that found that

lecturing to students was not a good way for them to learn effectively. I was shocked, not so much by the content of the presentation, but that it was being presented at all. I assumed that we all knew that the lecture format had limited usefulness and that a variety of pedagogical approaches tended to facilitate learning far more effectively. Now having worked in two universities and having discovered that the lecture-recitation format is the predominant means of instruction in educational leadership departments, I have become discouraged. Now that I have had the opportunity to study a number of programs in a variety of institutions and discover how little they have changed, I am saddened. Now that I have read a number of studies such as the Crampton and Westbrook (1989) research which concludes that educational leadership programs are very traditional in appearance and have changed little over the past ten years, I am perplexed.

My study of UCEA professors indicated that they were deeply concerned about restructuring the schools and yet appear to be unable or unwilling to lead the way by restructuring educational leadership programs. The recommendations contained in the National Policy Board and the OERI/LEAD Reports are well considered and could make a difference. The likelihood of any substantive adoption of their recommendations is slim. Worse, even if adopted, the probability of their making a difference is at best minimal. Until professors of education leadership begin to demonstrate an understanding of what is known about adult learning, they are indeed only "rearranging the deck chairs on the Titanic." We must begin to understand that educational leadership programs must have components beyond the imparting of knowledge through lectures (both theory and those beloved "war stories") or as one of my students refers to them, "data dumping sessions." Until we recognize the triad of knowledge acquisition, training, and development, reform efforts will have little impact. Until we recognize that practitioners must have full membership in the departments of educational leadership, where the roles of professor and practitioner become blurred and nearly indistinguishable, meaningful reform will be blunted. Until we re-constitute departments of educational leadership with research-sensitive clinical professors and practice-sensitive research professors, we will continue to be regarded as irrelevant by both our colleagues and our constituents. The journey to reform is perhaps more quixotic and bewildering than challenging and beguiling, but certainly a journey worth taking.

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Appendix A: Issue Descriptors

Changing Demographics: Coping with demographic changes ("haves and have nots," aging, minorities) both current and projected.

Collective Bargaining: Addressing the issues surrounding teacher-board collective bargaining and their impact on society.

Equity/Excellence/Accountability: Reacting to the issues and concerns surrounding equity, opportunity, quality, and accountability.

Federal/State/Courts/Encroachment: Narrowing of local control through the imposition of federal, state, and court action.

Financing Schools: Designing a system to generate and distribute revenue to school systems in an efficient, adequate, and equitable manner in an environment marked by intensifying competition for scarce resources.

Governance/Structure: Responding to ideas, proposals and forces directed toward altering the traditional structure and authority systems for public education.

Health/Drugs/AIDS: Coping with threats to the physical and emotional well-being of children and youth.

Mission/Curriculum: Responding to the momentum generated internally and externally to examine afresh the mission of public education and the curriculum essential to that mission.

Planning for the Future: Developing of strategic planning processes to cope with change and effectively confront our future needs into the next century.

Professional Concerns: Responding to concerns (salaries, status, roles) that are prominent among teachers and administrators.

Quality in Teaching and Administration: Improving the quality of current and aspiring teachers and administrators through changes in preparation programs, the enhancement of professionalism, the provision of accountability, and the exploration of alternative avenues for certification.

Recruitment of Staff: Attracting the "best and the brightest" into teaching and administration, reducing barriers (certification, low pay, esteem), and promoting incentives.

Sociological Concerns: Growing disparity between rich and poor, minorities and majority populations (including "majority minority" issues), changing societal values, and the possible diminution of the middle class financially and politically.

School Board Membership: The need for the recruitment of committed, competent community members to seek board election/appointment and obtain the training needed for good boardsmanship.

School Community Relations: Achieving better public understanding of and support for public schools expanding and diversifying participation, and responding to demands for accountability.

Staff Development: Providing opportunities for staff growth, retraining, and renewal which could result in program development, and more motivated staff.

Students at Risk: Defining and designing programs and services necessary to meet the educational needs of students at risk in terms of academic, physical, medical, psychological and social aspects.

Technology: Providing expanded opportunities with the assistance of technological systems (computer, interactive video, etc.) and coping with rapid change in the field.

CHAPTER 4

Evaluation of Rigor and Value as a Base for Restructuring the Administrative Internship

Virginia L. Wylie and Ernestine H. Clark
Valdosta State College

Introduction

Strong local leadership sparks reform that benefits schools. Planning and evaluating preparation programs to develop leaders must be concerns for departments of educational administration. In a departure from an emphasis on theory, *Leaders for America's Schools* (1988) recommends a broad-based preparation program that combines knowledge, skills, application, supervised practice, and demonstration of competence. The administrative internship, therefore, is a component of preparation programs that has gained renewed credibility due to its applied setting.

This paper reports the results of efforts by Valdosta State College's Department of Educational Administration and Supervision (EAS) to revise and upgrade the traditional administrative internship. The revised internship provides an individualized culmination to the M.Ed. degree program. In line with recommendations from *Principals for 21st Century Schools* (1990), the primary objective of this internship is to help potential school leaders apply knowledge and skills on site under the joint supervision of senior college faculty and local school administrators. An additional objective is to offer interns career, personal, and academic counseling services.

M.Ed. Degree Program Review and Changes

The Department of EAS's 60-quarter hour M.Ed. degree requires an area of specialization containing 35 hours of coursework in educational administration. Foundations of education, conditions of learning, educational

research, and two elective courses complete the program of study. Previously, the area of specialization included a fragmented assortment of traditional courses selected by students from available options for such reasons as convenience of scheduling, preference for instructor, or course reputation. The internship was recommended by faculty advisors but not required.

In July 1990, the Georgia Department of Education mandated a set of seven specific leadership courses to be taken at the fifth-year level as part of either the M.Ed. degree or for add-on certification. Six of the seven were content courses linked to areas of core competencies included in the state-administered teacher certification test in administration and supervision (TCT). The seventh course was a field experience. These seven courses comprised a new 35-hour area of specialization for all fifth-year leadership preparation courses in the State. Upon completion of this mandated coursework, students must pass the TCT to obtain leadership certification and for eligibility to the Ed.S. degree program.

In October 1990, the State advised that the department's M.Ed. program was administratively approved until the next on-site review. The approved block of seven leadership courses included: (a) Curriculum and Instruction for Administrators and Supervisors; (b) Principles of Administration; (c) Instructional Supervision; (d) School Law; (e) School Business Management; (f) School Personnel Administration; and (g) Internship in Administration and Supervision. At the time of approval, the State commended the Department of EAS for its "excellent internship course description."

Evaluation of the Administrative Internship

The Department of EAS engaged in program evaluation as a mechanism for improving its leadership preparation program. For example, faculty members served on State committees to identify TCT competencies, and department committees periodically examined and updated course syllabi to ensure that key competencies were covered. In department meetings, the faculty analyzed results of student TCT scores and results of evaluation questionnaires sent annually to all EAS graduates, making recommendations to shore up weak areas. In addition, the NCATE and SACS accreditation reviews, successfully completed in 1989 and 1990, necessitated a self-study process involving all program components.

Throughout these evaluation efforts, the administrative internship attracted particular interest. The Department of EAS supported and recommended the internship to students, and faculty members had already revised this course to include structured assignments and closer supervision. As

shown in Table 1, however, while 47% of the EAS graduates who responded to annual program evaluations from 1984 to 1988 rated the quality of the internship "excellent" or "very good," a full third (34%) of the respondents did not take that course.

In 1990, Valdosta State College's Office of Institutional Research and Planning began a systematic follow up of all program graduates. One and five years after graduation, graduates answered questionnaires rating the "rigor" and "value" of their college coursework. Data were compiled into reports for each department (Crowe, 1990, 1991). The 1990 response rate for the Department of EAS was 44% for 1984-85 graduates and 45% for 1988-89 graduates. The 1991 response rate was 16% for 1985-86 graduates and 38% for 1989-90 graduates.

In the 1990 questionnaire, graduates rated the rigor and value of each course taken according to "moderate challenge" and "major challenge." In 1991, a third rating category of "some challenge" was added. Tables 2, 3, and 4 present data concerning the internship extracted from the Crowe report which provided a descriptive summary of the questionnaire items for the Department of EAS.

Table 2 shows graduate ratings of internship rigor. While 86% of the total group of 1984-85 and 1988-89 graduates rated internship rigor as "moderate challenge," only 14% rated it as a "major challenge." This is consistent with responses from the 1985-86 and 1989-90 graduates showing that 17% rated internship rigor as "some challenge," 67% "moderate challenge," and 17% "major challenge." Table 3 shows graduate ratings of internship value. In contrast to the ratings on rigor, 17% of the 1984-85 and 1988-89 graduates rated internship value as "moderate challenge" but 83% rated it as "major challenge." This contrast is confirmed by responses from the 1985-86 and 1989-90 group showing that 17% rated internship value as "some challenge," 17% "moderate challenge," and 67% "major challenge." Table 4 presents graduate comparisons of course rigor and value for the EAS graduates surveyed in 1991. The table lists the seven courses now required in the Department of EAS for completion of the M.Ed. degree and for fifth-year leadership certification. Graduates rated each of the courses according to perceived rigor and value. The table provides percentage responses for the rigor and value of the courses as a "major challenge" along with the respective ranking of each course. The shift from perceived rigor to value of the internship is clearly indicated by the lowest ranking of 7 for rigor and the second highest ranking of 2 for value in comparison to other required courses.

In summary, evaluations of the internship prior to the Georgia Department of Education's requirement for a field experience at the fifth-year level show that a third of EAS graduates had no internship course in their program

of study. The graduates who took the internship rated it higher in value than in rigor. Finally, the internship ranked lowest in rigor in comparison to other fifth-year courses but second highest in value. These evaluations suggested that the time was right for additional program development.

Table 1: EAS Graduate Ratings of Internship Quality

Grads	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
1984-85	4(33%)	4(33%)				4(33%)
1985-86	4(31%)	2(15%)				7(54%)
1986-87	9(43%)	4(19%)	2(9%)	1(5%)		5(24%)
1987-88	12(40%)	8(27%)				10(33%)
Total Grads	29(38%)	18(24%)	2(3%)	1(1%)		26(34%)

Note. Rating of 1 = Excellent, 2 = Very Good, 3 = Good, 4 = Fair, 5 = Poor, N/A = Does Not Apply (Internship was not taken).

Table 2: EAS Graduate Ratings of Internship Rigor

Grad	N	Some Challenge	Moderate Challenge	Major Challenge
1984-85	3		67%	33%
1988-89	4		100%	
Total Grads	7		86%	14%
1985-86	3	33%	67%	
1989-90	9	11%	67%	22%
Total Grads	12	17%	67%	17%

Note. Data extracted from Crowe reports (1990,1991).

Table 3: EAS Graduate Ratings of Internship Value

Grads	N	Some Challenge	Moderate Challenge	Major Challenge
1984-85	3			100%
1988-89	3		33%	67%
Total Grads	6		17%	83%
1985-86	3	33%		67%
1989-90	9	11%	22%	67%
Total Grads	12	17%	17%	67%

Note. Data extracted from Crowe reports (1990,1991).

Table 4: EAS Graduate Comparisons of Course Rigor and Value
Total EAS Graduates, 1985-86 and 1989-90

Course	Rigor Major Challenge	Rank	Value Major Challenge	Rank
Curriculum	38%	3	13%	7
Administration	19%	6	47%	6
Supervision	33%	4	53%	5
Law	47%	1	69%	1
Business Mgt.	43%	2	54%	4
Personnel	31%	5	60%	3
Internship	17%	7	67%	2

Note. Data extracted from Crowe report (1991).

The gains in program development were stimulated by formal evaluations and State mandates for reform in leadership preparation programs. EAS faculty members recommended changes that contributed to the State

mandates. For example, we participated in committee work with heads of leadership departments from other colleges throughout the State. Representatives from the Department of Education attended the committee meetings to hear discussions of experiences and problems EAS departments were having. A common complaint dealt with the latitude that students had when pursuing fifth-year leadership certification. If students took an M.Ed. degree, faculty advisors could hold them to reasonable course requirements. If, on the other hand, students added on leadership certification to an M.Ed. degree in another field, the State certification process permitted them to take any seven EAS courses from any institution. Since many students went the add-on certification route, fragmented, unbalanced programs of study were the inevitable result.

Consistent program requirements were the answer to this problem and a necessary step toward increasing the rigor and value of specific coursework. When the State mandated a block of seven specific EAS courses required for either the M.Ed. degree or for add-on certification in July 1990, the six content courses ensured a knowledge base of core leadership competencies at the fifth-year level. The seventh requirement for a field experience thus set the stage for fresh efforts to improve the internship.

During 1991-92, we decided to team teach the internship and to engage in collaborative action research (Sagor, 1991). We are both senior EAS faculty members experienced in supervising interns in a variety of K-12 settings. Results of department and college evaluations provided a point of departure in identifying the problem and collecting data that would focus on further improvements of that course's "rigor" and "value." The first problem that appeared in these evaluations was that only one-third of EAS graduates took the internship course. This problem was effectively eliminated by the new State requirement for an internship in all fifth-year programs of study. The second problem was with the perception of EAS graduates that the rigor of the internship was lowest of all coursework. Its perceived value, on the other hand, ranked near the top. Obviously, the rigor of the internship should be examined and strengthened but without diminishing its value.

The balance of this paper explains how the administrative internship was restructured and outlines the research approach we used in its implementation during 1991-92. The content of the internship is specified and includes objectives, specific experiences and requirements, and evaluation procedures. Anecdotal data from student participants about if and why the internship was rigorous and valuable are included with our corresponding perceptions and summarized into short-term and long-term recommendations for improving the internship.

Description of the Internship

The internship is scheduled in Fall, Winter, and Spring Quarters with typical enrollments of from 10 to 15 students who are aspiring administrators employed in elementary and secondary schools. These schools are scattered throughout the 41-county service area of Valdosta State College in a predominantly rural, South Georgia setting. Typically, one faculty member is assigned to the internship course, but if the enrollment is excessive other faculty absorb some of the load.

The internship is scheduled to meet on campus Saturday mornings three times during a quarter. This gives participants the opportunity to meet as a group for orientation, common activities, and sharing of final reports. The remainder of the work is done on site in the students' own schools, jointly supervised by a college supervisor and school administrator. Students must have their school administrators' permission in writing to take the internship. When the internship is underway, students come to school early and stay late, use their planning periods, and use any released time their administrators can give them to complete the course requirements. Students who are in semi- or entry-level leadership positions have more time available to devote to their coursework as opposed to those still in teaching positions.

Normally, the college supervisor visits each student on-site two or three times a quarter, depending on how many students are enrolled in the course. Phone calls, letters, and informal office conferences add to the number of internship contacts. In 1991-92, to facilitate the research we were conducting, we varied the usual visitation schedule. Fall Quarter, we took the list of eight students enrolled and split them into two sections according to geographic location. Each of us took a section and visited one group of students; then we traded sections and visited the other group. We went together for the final trip and visited all the students. In that way, each student had three on-site visits from two college supervisors, the third being a team visit.

When we met on campus the first Saturday for orientation to the internship, we reviewed course objectives and requirements. The course objectives are: (a) to demonstrate knowledge of the duties of administrative personnel; (b) to assess and evaluate his/her personal traits and professional competencies in relation to those needed by a school administrator; and (c) to demonstrate leadership skills in nine critical areas of administration and supervision through the application of educational theory to problems common to the school administrator. The course requirements are: (a) to keep an anecdotal log of internship experiences of administrative-related activities; (b) to compile a resource notebook keyed to the nine critical areas of leadership skills as identified on the teacher certification test (TCT) for

administrators and supervisors; and (c) to complete a mini-project related to an administrative position. We also reviewed the course procedures involving on-campus sessions, on-site visits, and joint determination of the final course grade of "S" or "U" by the college supervisors and school administrator. Finally, we explained changes that the department made in the internship based on previous evaluations.

Content of the Internship

The first way the internship course has been restructured involves its knowledge base. The internship is not a content course as such but rather a course where content learned in other courses is applied. The internship is the culminating experience in the fifth-year program where students apply their knowledge of administration to practice. They are to demonstrate their knowledge of the tasks and processes of administration; and they are to demonstrate leadership competencies.

The internship is now built on a much stronger knowledge base because six specific content courses are required along with the internship for leadership certification. These six content courses were recently updated with additional competencies added. The department recommends that the internship be taken at or near the end of the students' program of study so that content studied in the six courses can be applied in a field setting.

The internship requirement to compile a resource notebook has been refined so that the notebook is sectioned by the nine critical areas of leadership skills identified on the TCT. These areas are principles of: (a) instructional leadership, (b) human resources management, (c) physical resources management, (d) fiscal resources management, (e) student personnel management, (f) public relations, (g) organization, (h) school law and agency, and (i) human relations and group dynamics. Students use checklist sheets to track their experiences in each area during the internship, noting both the nature of the experience and the nature of their personal involvement. They check off whether they observed, consulted, organized, operated, or evaluated with regard to each experience and whether their participation was minimal or significant.

Each of the nine sections in the resource notebook also serves as an organizer for the collection of such materials as school forms, calendars and schedules, budget expense sheets, personnel evaluation procedures, grading and reporting procedures, faculty meeting agendas, handbooks, and policy manuals. Related materials are placed in the notebook by competency area for convenient referral. The introductory section in the notebook includes a student's resume, description of intern duties and responsibili-

ties, and sample job descriptions for administrative positions. The last section includes a copy of the student's anecdotal log and mini-project.

Students select one activity in which participation was significant in each of the nine competency areas and write a brief summary of the activity, their involvement, and an evaluation of leadership skills gained by participation. Often one of these activities leads to the development of the required mini-project. The mini-project is related to administration and must meet a school need or solve a problem. Examples are setting up computer programs for school records, developing a handbook for substitute teachers, preparing alternative schedules, writing grants and proposals, and coordinating special events. Students share their mini-projects with one another during the final on-campus session of the quarter.

Career Assessment and Job Placement

The second way the internship has been restructured concerns career assessment and job placement services. One of the internship's objectives is to assess students' personal and professional competencies in relation to those needed by a school administrator. Therefore, the second on-campus session is devoted to these topics. We believe that the fifth-year level is a critical point in the career development of our students because they generally are still in teaching or part-time leadership positions. They are pursuing programs in administration and supervision but may be unaware of career needs and options. They need help in identifying the factors that are associated with securing a job in administration and then succeeding in such a position. They also need help with job placement.

In the second on-campus session, we talk about the individuality of our students and how each one has to have, know, and be able to do many things to secure and succeed in positions in educational leadership. We provide each student with a "MyCAP Assessment Survey Form" which lists 29 factors identified by research involving successful administrators (Wylie & Michael, 1991). We discuss each factor and explain that some are more important in securing a position while others are more important in succeeding once a person is on the job. The students check off factors they consider their strengths and then identify weaknesses. Finally, each writes a career goal and develops a plan of action to achieve that goal. The completed paper is the individual student's MyCAP (My Career Action Plan) and serves as the basis for the follow-up counseling we do with students during on-site visitation. This paper is included in the student's resource notebook along with the resume.

We are now attempting to provide job placement assistance through the internship. Although Valdosta State College has a job placement service,

it is geared more toward undergraduates and also more toward persons who have graduated from degree programs. Our EAS students frequently take or would like to take administrative positions prior to completing their degrees. In particular, nearly all EAS students enrolled in the Ed.S. degree program (6th year) hold principalships or central office positions. Although some of these students would like to advance to other administrative positions, they are already well known in their school systems and have built up networks to help them change jobs when they are ready. In our experience, the key point for job placement assistance is at the fifth-year level with students who are "fresh talent."

We ask our internship students to complete a "Job Placement Assistance Form" giving current information about themselves including qualifications, career objective, willingness to relocate, and date available. We compile these forms into a directory of EAS students who are in our leadership program. When we receive requests from area administrators who are seeking someone to fill a certain position, we have at hand the necessary data to make an informed recommendation.

Research Methodology and Recommendations for Next Steps

As part of our 1991-92 research efforts, we asked our students to modify the anecdotal logs required in the internship to a reflective journal format and to include their personal evaluation of the "rigor" and "value" of the course. We asked them to write about what they hoped to accomplish in the internship, what they did, how they felt about it, and what changes would help them achieve their career goals. We talked about these perceptions during our third on-campus session as a final class activity.

In general, comments about "rigor" referred to the careful organization of course activities and requirements with the close supervision of experiences on site. Students remarked on the thorough explanations of content and competencies given during the on-campus sessions. They said they had spent a great deal of time in completion of course requirements.

Comments about "value" were more frequent and enthusiastic. Students liked the practicality of the internship and the chance to practice leadership skills in their schools. They felt the resource notebook would be a valuable tool in future jobs because it pulled so much together into a ready reference, and they wanted to know when we would have the notebooks graded so they could have them back. They enjoyed their mini-projects because of the opportunity to get out of their classrooms and work with other teachers and other aspects of their schools. They also noted that the mini-projects gave them visibility in their school systems. Visibility within their own schools

was also mentioned. Students liked the recognition they got from their school administrator who in some cases began to act as a mentor. They also saw their college supervisors as mentors and role models and looked forward to on-site visits. The on-campus sessions allowed them to meet other students and to share experiences, developing a network of useful contacts. Finally, the students expressed appreciation for the career counseling and individual attention the internship gave them, and the prospect of future job placement services. The students did identify problems with the internship in their journals, and these problems coincided with observations we made during the research process.

As part of our collaborative action research, we kept and compared reflective journals (Wellington, 1991). We wrote about what we wanted to do during the internship course, what we actually did and why, how we felt about what happened, and how we could improve our performance to bring us closer to our goals. We team planned and team taught the on-campus course sessions. We made visits to schools singly and together. When we visited together, we added peer observation and coaching to our methodology to help refine our supervisory techniques (Robbins, 1991). We observed a renewed professionalism through our collaborative efforts which could only be summarized as "having somebody to talk to" about what we found while working with our students and visiting in their schools. We drew our own conclusions about the "rigor" and "value" of the internship that were remarkably similar to those made by the students.

The problems we observed in connection with the internship have been combined with those observed by our students and may provide direction for future improvements in this course. We divided these into short- and long-term recommendations for improvement. Some of the short-term recommendations are already in the implementation stage. The long-term recommendations suggest worthy goals for the future.

Recommendations. Recommendations for improving the administrative internship include:

1. The internship should come at the end of the fifth-year program.
2. The internship should be longer than one quarter.
3. Sites for intern placement should be carefully selected to provide a model experience.
4. College supervisors need to make more on-site visits for closer intern supervision and for contact with the real world of public school education.
5. Only faculty members with public school experience should supervise interns.
6. Career counseling and job placement services should be provided to students taking the internship.

In conclusion, students taking the internship course during 1991-92 and their college supervisors agreed that the internship experience is of enormous "value" as part of fifth-year coursework. The "value" stems from application of knowledge and competencies to practice and from individual attention to career goals and needs. The "rigor" of the internship has been increased through defining its knowledge base, by structuring internship requirements and activities, and by strengthening its supervisory component. The combined processes of continuous program evaluation and collaborative action research will promote further improvements in our Department of EAS leadership preparation program. We recognize that a high level of commitment and cooperation, as well as the provision of additional resources, will be needed for implementation of these recommendations.

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